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APPROACH TO DNA REPAIR AND MUTAGENESIS**

Larry H. Thompson

BIOMEDICAL SCIENCES DIVISION

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A SOMATIC CELL AND MOLECULAR GENETICS APPROACH TO DNA REPAIR AND MUTAGENESIS

Larry H. Thompson

Biomedical Sciences Division, Lawrence Livermore
National Laboratory, P.O. Box 5507, Livermore,
California, 94550, U.S.A.

INTRODUCTION

Our laboratory (Thompson et al. 1980) and others (Stamato and Waldren, 1977; Sato and Hieda, 1979; Busch et al. 1980) showed the feasibility of isolating mutant cell lines induced in culture that had markedly increased sensitivity to far ultraviolet (UV) radiation or certain chemical mutagens. In the CHO cell line, UV-sensitive mutants representing five genetic complementation groups have been identified (Thompson et al., 1981; Thompson and Carrano, 1983). Mutants from each of these groups were shown to be defective in performing the incision step of repair after exposure to UV (Thompson et al. 1982a). In this respect, they closely resemble mutant human cells from individuals with the cancer-prone xeroderma pigmentosum (XP) syndrome (Cleaver, 1983). Whether any of the rodent cell mutants are altered in the same genes as XP cells remains to be determined (Thompson et al., 1985a).

One of the most exciting aspects of the hamster and mouse repair mutants is the finding that the defects can be genetically complemented by human genes. This relationship has been shown using both DNA-mediated gene transfer (Rubin et al., 1983) and cell fusion to produce hybrid cells (Hori et al., 1983; Thompson et al., 1985b). Recently the first molecular cloning of a human repair gene associated with the repair of damage from UV radiation and mitomycin C was accomplished by Westerveld and coworkers (1984). Thus, it now seems possible to identify and isolate many human genes involved in repair by their ability to complement mutations

present in rodent cell lines. This somatic cell genetics approach to determining human repair genes may be limited only by the diversity of mutants that can be obtained from a variety of established cell lines, including human lines. Thus, a detailed molecular dissection of repair pathways may eventually become possible, as in the case of lower eukaryotes and prokaryotes (Walker et al., 1985).

Repair-deficient cell lines are valuable for mutagenesis testing because of their hypersensitivity to induced mutation and induced sister-chromatid exchange, as well as to cell killing (Thompson et al., 1982a, 1982b, 1982c, 1983a). In one instance of a bacterial mutagen that is known to be present in cooked meats, the extra sensitivity of excision-repair-deficient cells was helpful in establishing the ability of the compound to produce genetic damage in CHO cells (Thompson et al., 1983b). It has also been possible to use the repair mutants to devise a simple, rapid assay for detecting DNA-damaging agents based on differential cytotoxicity between normal cells and repair-deficient strains (Hoy et al., 1984, 1985).

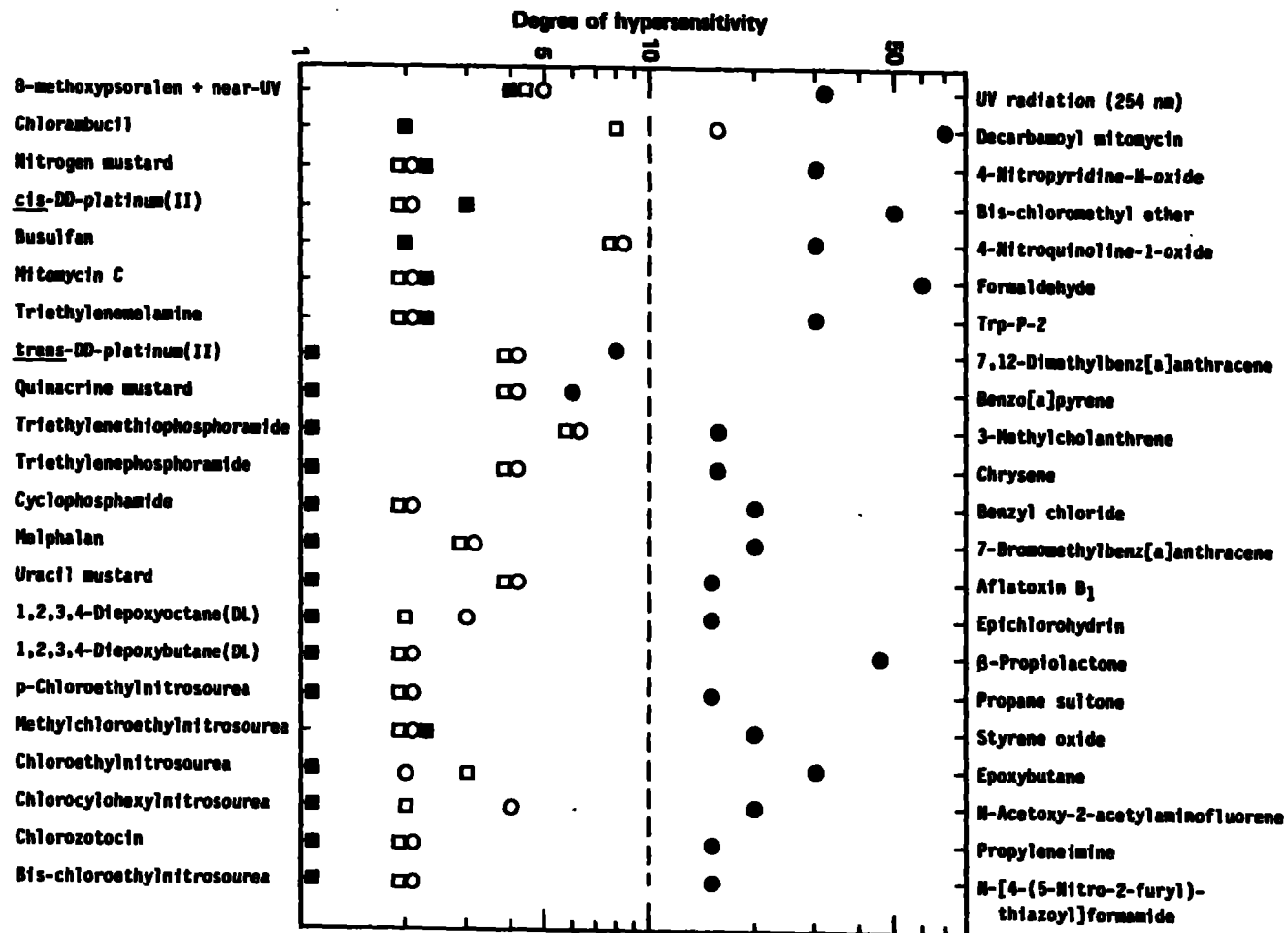
Repair-deficient lines also have application to issues such as the role of repair in cell cycle variations in response to mutagens (Wood and Burki, 1982; Thompson et al., 1984). These studies have indicated that nucleotide excision repair is responsible for much of the cyclic change in sensitivity to killing that is seen with agents producing bulky lesions.

RESULTS

Two Phenotypes of Nucleotide Excision Repair Mutants of CHO Cells

The UV-sensitive CHO mutants belonging to 5 complementation groups were found to be defective in nucleotide excision repair on the basis of their inability to perform the incision step after UV exposure (Thompson et al., 1982a) and to remove the bulky adducts of 7-bromomethylbenz[a]anthracene (Thompson et al., 1984). Although mutants from the different complementation groups have similar sensitivity to killing by UV radiation or monofunctional mutagens forming bulky adducts (Thompson et al., 1981; Hoy et al., 1984), the sensitivity to

Figure 1. Degree of hypersensitivity of mutants to killing by bulky mono- and bifunctional agents. Symbols: UV5 (□) and UV4 (○) for monofunctional agents, listed at the top; UV5 (■) and UV4 (●) for bifunctional agents at the bottom. Data redrawn from Hoy et al., 1984, 1985.



bifunctional compounds defines two discrete subgroups (Hoy et al., 1985). These relationships are illustrated by the results summarized in Figure 1 for 22 monofunctional agents and 22 cross-linking agents that were tested in a rapid differential cytotoxicity assay (Hoy et al., 1984, 1985). On this graph a value of 1 means that a mutant has the same sensitivity to killing as normal cells. Both mutants UV5 and UV4, which belong to Complementation Groups 1 and 2, respectively, have moderate hypersensitivity (2-8 fold) to monofunctional compounds. In contrast, only UV4 has extreme hypersensitivity (>10-fold) to the bifunctional compounds; UV5 is either slightly hypersensitive or normal in its response. For two of the bifunctional compounds (quinacrine mustard and trans-DD-platinum(II)), the response of UV4 was less than 10-fold. As discussed by Hoy et al. (1985), this lesser sensitivity may be accounted for by the presence of other classes of lesions besides DNA interstrand cross-links that contribute to toxicity. Examination of mutants in the other complementation groups, and of independent mutants within groups, indicates that Groups 2 and 4 are characteristically very sensitive to cross-linkers while Groups 1, 3, and 5 are not. The biochemical basis of this differential sensitivity is not known.

EM9, A Mutant With Very High Sister-Chromatid Exchange

CHO mutant line EM9 was isolated on the basis of hypersensitivity to killing by ethyl methanesulfonate (Thompson et al., 1980) and was found to be deficient in repairing DNA strand breaks after exposure to ionizing radiation or ethyl methanesulfonate (Thompson et al., 1982b). The profile of hypersensitivity of EM9 to other mutagens is narrow. EM9 has marked sensitivity to alkyl methanesulfonates and alkyl sulfates but only slight sensitivity to nitrosoureas and nitrosoguanidines (L. Thompson and C. Hoy, unpublished results). It has normal sensitivity to DNA cross-linking agents and many compounds that form bulky monoadducts (Hoy et al., 1984, 1985). The nucleotide excision repair system in EM9 is functional (Thompson et al. 1984), and the specific biochemical defect has not been determined. DNA ligases (Chan et al., 1984) AP endonucleases (La Belle et al., 1984), and poly(ADP-ribose) metabolism (Ikejima et al., 1984) all appear to be normal in EM9. Perhaps the defect lies in

some factor that affects the structure of chromatin rather than an enzymatic activity per se.

EM9 cells share with cells from Bloom's syndrome the interesting property of a greatly elevated baseline frequency of sister-chromatid exchange (SCE), about 10 times the normal level (Thompson et al., 1982b). By using a monoclonal antibody to BrdUrd-containing DNA, the enhanced SCEs in EM9 were found to be attributable to the BrdUrd itself, which is routinely used in visualizing SCE (Pinkel et al., 1985).

Normal human cells contain a gene that corrects the defect in EM9. Tests for genetic complementation of EM9 were done using CldUrd as a selective agent since EM9 was found to be efficiently killed by this analog (Dillehay et al., 1984). Complementation was shown both by fusing cells to form hybrids and by transfecting with genomic DNA (Thompson et al., 1985c). The presence of the human gene resulted in normalization of SCE frequencies. Efforts are underway to isolate this human gene.

Mapping of DNA Repair Genes Using Hamster/Human Hybrids

The large number of complementation groups of XP mutations (9 at present for excision repair; Fischer et al., 1985) has raised the question whether these groups all correspond to single gene loci (Lambert and Lambert, 1985). The same issue applies to the 5 groups of UV-sensitive CHO mutants. One approach toward answering this question is to localize in the human karyotype the genes that complement the defects in the CHO mutants. Thus, by making CHO/human cell hybrids under the appropriate selective conditions, we have begun to map each of the complementing human genes. The mutation in strain UV20 (Group 2) was complemented by human chromosome 19 (Thompson et al., 1985b). Confirming evidence was reported by Rubin et al., 1985). Preliminary evidence suggests that UV5 may also be complemented by human chromosome 19 while each of the other 3 groups involves a different human chromosome (L. Thompson and M. Siciliano, unpublished results). Somewhat surprisingly, mutant EM9 is also complemented by a gene on chromosome 19 (M. Siciliano, A. Carrano, L. Thompson, in preparation).

The finding that several DNA repair genes are located

on one small human chromosome might be explained, at least partially, by the fact that a linkage group on this chromosome (including markers PEP-D and GPI) appears conserved between human and hamster and by the fact that CHO cells are monosomic for these loci (Siciliano et al., 1983). Thus, CHO mutations recovered preferentially from monosomic chromosomal regions could thereby lead to apparent clustering of human repair genes. However, the question remains as to whether the linkage of two genes for the incision step of nucleotide excision repair may have functional significance.

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